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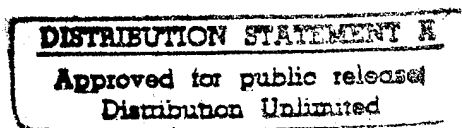
Grant N00014 91 J 1035

R & T Code 413302S - Robert Nowak

Technical Report No. 25

Semiconductor Based Interfacial Electron Transfer Reactivity:
Decoupling Kinetics from pH Dependent Band Energetics in a Dye-sensitized
Titanium Dioxide/Aqueous Solution System

Prepared for publication in *J. Phys. Chem.*, October 1995



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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE			Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188	
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1. AGENCY USE ONLY (Leave blank)		2. REPORT DATE Oct. 26, 1995	3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED Technical Report, 25	
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Semiconductor Based Interfacial Electron Transfer Reactivity: Decoupling Kinetics from pH Dependent Band Energetics in a Dye-sensitized Titanium Dioxide/Aqueous Solution System			5. FUNDING NUMBERS G.N00014-91-J-1035	
6. AUTHOR(S) Susan G. Yan and Joseph T. Hupp				
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Department of Chemistry Northwestern University 2145 Sheridan Road Evanston, Illinois 60208-3113			8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER 25	
9. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Office of Naval Research Chemistry Division 800 North Quincy Avenue Arlington, VA 22217-500			10. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER	
11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES Prepared for publication in J. Phys. Chem.				
12a. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Reproduction in whole, or in part, is permitted for any purpose of the United States Government.			12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE	
13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) Hexaphosphonation of Ru(bpy) ₃ ²⁺ provides a basis for surface attachment to nanocrystalline TiO ₂ in film (electrode) or colloidal form and for subsequent retention of the molecule over an extraordinarily wide pH range. Visible excitation of the surface attached complex leads to rapid injection of an electron into the semiconductor. Return electron transfer, monitored by transient absorbance spectroscopy, is biphasic with a slow component that can be reversibly eliminated by adjusting the potential of the dark electrode to a value close to the conduction band edge (E_{CB}). Evaluation of the fast component yields a back electron transfer rate constant of $5(\pm 0.5) \times 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ that is invariant between pH = 11 and $H_0 = -8$, despite a greater than 1 eV change in E_{CB} (i.e. the nominal free energy of the electron in the electrode). The observed insensitivity to large changes in band edge energetics stands in marked contrast to the behavior expected from a straightforward application of conventional interfacial electron transfer theory and calls into question the existing interpretation of these types of reactions as simple inverted region processes.				
14. SUBJECT TERMS			15. NUMBER OF PAGES 17.	
			16. PRICE CODE UL	
17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT unclassified	18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE unclassified	19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT unclassified	20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UL	

Introduction

Surface modification of wide bandgap semiconductors via attachment of redox-active dyes offers a means of sensitizing these materials for visible-region photoelectrochemical applications.¹ It also creates a convenient framework for interrogating interfacial electron transfer reaction kinetics. Among the most attractive systems for both applications are those based on carboxylate-functionalized ruthenium bipyridyl complexes together with high-area nanocrystalline titanium dioxide films.^{2,3} As with other semiconductor/molecular dye assemblies, these work by electron injection from a photo excited state of the dye into the conduction band or surface states of the semiconductor. One of the key distinguishing features of the nanocrystalline TiO_2 /dye system is relatively slow back electron transfer ($\tau \approx 100$ ns) after forward electron injection. Sluggish back electron transfer (ET) is advantageous in photoelectrochemical (photovoltaic) applications because it permits: a) capture of the dye-localized oxidizing equivalent by a solution-phase redox species, b) conduction band transport of the injected electron to an external circuit, c) return of the electron to solution via a second (dark) electrode (i.e. turnover of the redox species) and, therefore, d) relatively efficient sustained conversion of light to electrical energy.⁴

The prevailing wisdom suggests that back ET is uniquely (or nearly uniquely) slow in $\text{TiO}_2/\text{RuL}_3$ assemblies because the reaction occurs in the Marcus inverted region, where the reaction driving force (ca. -2 eV) is defined as the difference between the conduction band edge energy (~ -0.7 V at pH = 3) and the

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formal reduction potential of the oxidized dye (ca. +1.3 V for $\text{Ru}^{\text{III}}\text{L}_3$).⁵ We reasoned that the apparent driving force could be altered and the general hypothesis examined by taking advantage of the well known Nernstian dependence of the conduction band edge energy (E_{CB}) on pH.⁶ Using this strategy we have examined back ET to a highly adherent form of the ruthenium dye over a nearly 20 pH unit range (i.e., greater than 1 eV change in overall reaction driving force). These measurements have been augmented with time-resolved luminescence measurements, transient absorbance spectral measurements and independent laser reflectance assessments of E_{CB} . We find that the combined results differ tremendously from the predictions of the simplest treatments of metal-oxide semiconductor/solution reactivity and point to the need for new models for ET reactivity at these interfaces.

Experimental Section

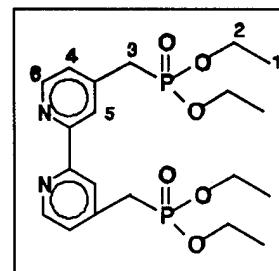
Preparation of TiO_2 sols and films. Colloidal TiO_2 sols were prepared by published methods.⁷ High surface area films were prepared via the following modification of the method of Nazeeruddin, et. al.^{2b} TiO_2 (P25, Degussa, 3 g) was ground in a mortar with 2 ml 2-methoxyethanol. The viscous paste was slowly diluted by addition of 2-methoxyethanol (6 ml) with continuous grinding. A surfactant (0.1 ml Triton X-100, Aldrich) was added to facilitate colloid spreading. The TiO_2 colloid was then cast by spin-coating onto conductive glass (Asahi fluorine-doped SnO_2) that was masked with Teflon tape. The electrode was fired for 1 hour at 450° in air. Dye was adsorbed by immersing the TiO_2 electrode in

an aqueous solution ($\text{pH} = 2.45$, adjusted with HNO_3) of hydrolyzed RuL_3 (see below) for 24 hours.

Measurements. Transient absorbance experiments were initiated by using the frequency doubled (532 nm) output of a short-cavity, Q-switched Nd:YAG laser (2.5 ns pulse) as a pump beam. The probe beam was generated with a pulsed 75 W xenon arc lamp (0.2 ms pulse)⁸ positioned normal to the laser input. For ET kinetics studies, the sample was probed at the dye ground state absorbance maximum (464 nm) and detection was accomplished with a fast (5-stage) photomultiplier tube. Data were collected either on a LeCroy 9400 digital oscilloscope or a LeCroy 6880 digitizer and the average of 1000 shots was recorded. Time-resolved emission studies (ca. 6 ns resolution) were carried out with an N_2 -pumped dye laser (PRA models LN1000 and LN102) with detection at right angles via a monochromator, fast PMT and digitizer or digital oscilloscope. Ground state UV-Vis absorbance spectra were obtained on a Hewlett-Packard 8452A diode array spectrophotometer.

Variable potential experiments were performed with a PAR 264A potentiostat in a three-electrode cell comprised of the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$ working electrode, a Pt wire counter electrode and a saturated sodium calomel (SSCE) reference electrode. Laser reflectance spectroelectrochemistry was carried out by using a PAR 273 potentiostat in conjunction with a 786 nm diode laser (Diolite).⁹ The detector was a fast photodiode (Thor Labs). Photodiode voltage versus potential signals were recorded on a Houston 2000 X-Y recorder.

Materials. The chelating ligand, 4,4'-(CH₂PO(OCH₂CH₃)₂)₂-2,2'-bipyridine (= L; see structure) was prepared by refluxing *bis*-4,4'-bromomethyl-2,2'-bipyridine¹⁰ in freshly distilled triethylphosphite (Aldrich) for 4-6 hours. The solvent was removed by distillation. The dark product was cooled, washed with ether, and collected by filtration. This preparation is a modification of literature methods.^{11,12} ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.3 (H₁, t, J = 9.3 Hz, 12H), 4.1 (H₂, q, J = 7.5 Hz, 8H), 3.2, 3.3 (H₃, s, 4H), 7.3 (H₄, d, 2H), 8.3 (H₅, s, 2H), 8.6 (H₆, d, J = 9 Hz, 2H).



[RuL₃](PF₆)₂ was prepared from RuCl₃ (Aesar) and L by literature methods,¹³ except that 2-methoxyethanol was used as solvent. (Attempts to isolate the compound from "standard" solvents such as DMF and ethylene glycol were unsuccessful.) After partial removal of solvent and addition of water, the crude compound was precipitated via addition of aq. NH₄PF₆ and subjected to rapid, short column chromatography. It should be noted that the coordinated ligand is relatively easily partially hydrolyzed in aqueous solutions (established by NMR). This ultimately was not a concern since the complex is subsequently intentionally hydrolyzed in acid (6 M HCl) to facilitate surface attachment (presumably via phosphonate chelation of Ti(IV)). Nevertheless, partial hydrolysis complicates isolation from water (solubility enhancement...) and renders elemental analysis (while satisfactory) relatively uninformative. Supporting evidence for the proposed formulation was obtained, therefore, from mass spectrometry and other methods. Elemental analysis calc. (found) for

$\{\text{RuL}_3(\text{PF}_6)_2 \cdot 2(\text{NH}_4\text{PF}_6) \cdot 2(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)\}$ ($= \text{C}_{56}\text{H}_{90}\text{N}_8\text{O}_{18}\text{P}_{10}\text{F}_{24}\text{Ru}$): C: 33.50 (33.13), H: 4.45 (4.47), N: 5.84 (5.52). (Note that in the reported (calculated) elemental analysis, protons were assumed to be present for ligand charge compensation). FAB mass spec. for $[\text{RuL}_3](\text{PF}_6)_2$, m/e : 1616 (parent compound - PF_6), 1415 ($-2(\text{PF}_6), -2(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)$), 1359 ($-2(\text{PF}_6), -4(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)$), 1335 ($-\text{PF}_6, -10(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)$), 1279 ($-\text{PF}_6, -12(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)$), 1247 ($-2(\text{PF}_6), -8(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)$). ^1H NMR (D_2O): δ 1.3 (H_1 , t, $J = 10.6$ Hz, 30H), 4.1 (H_2 , q, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 20H), 3.5 (H_3 , 2s, 12H), 8.2 (H_5 , s, 6H), 8.7 (H_6 , d, 6H). The ^1H NMR spectrum for the intentionally hydrolyzed complex displayed a loss of the peaks at 1.3 and 4.1, confirming loss of the ethyl groups. The compound exhibits an intense metal-to-ligand charge transfer absorbance with $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 464$ nm ($\epsilon = 12,600 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$). The Ru(II/III) formal potential (prior to intentional hydrolysis) was 1.24 V vs. SSCE in acetonitrile containing 0.1 M tetrabutylammonium perchlorate.

Desired buffer solutions were prepared from appropriate combinations of KH_2PO_4 and NaOH in water. Solutions of extreme acidity ($\text{H}_0 = +1$ to -8 , H_0 is the Hammett acidity parameter)¹⁴ were prepared by diluting concentrated H_2SO_4 .¹⁵

Results and Discussion

Transient absorbance signals (464 nm probe; Figure 1) are characterized by an instrument limited bleach (MLCT excitation and rapid injection) and a biphasic recovery (back ET) whose shape is independent of pump power. Consistent with the rapid electron injection interpretation, luminescence from the interface-bound dye is undetectable. (In contrast, the dye in solution ($\text{pH} \approx 2.5$) readily luminesces

with a single exponential decay time of 500 ns.) Additional evidence that interfacial electron transfer has occurred comes from excited state/ground state difference spectra (Figure 2).¹⁶ For the dye in solution the pertinent spectral features are the depletion of intensity in the MLCT region (400-500 nm) and the concurrent appearance of a coordinated ligand radical anion absorbance near 550 nm (expected for an MLCT excited state¹⁷). The corresponding spectrum for the dye on TiO₂ also shows the MLCT bleach, indicating transient formation of Ru(III). Lacking, however, is the ligand based absorption; its absence clearly is consistent with the contention that the electron instead has been injected into the semiconductor.¹⁸

Returning to Figure 1, we find that the decay kinetics can be altered by applying an external potential. As the potential of the photoelectrode approaches the conduction band edge (-0.9 V at pH = 7; see below), the long component of the absorbance decay is lost and a roughly single exponential decay remains.^{19,20} Changing the applied potential changes the Fermi level and provides an external means of populating or depopulating surface electronic states. Loss of the long decay component is interpreted, therefore, as reversible elimination of participation of sub-bandgap states in the electron transfer reaction.

Further shifts in potential lead to accumulation layer formation and the appearance of a near infrared (ground state) absorbance.²¹ The absorbance onset was followed by diode laser reflectance measurements as described elsewhere.^{9,22} From reflectance measurements at several pH's, the flatband potential or

conduction band edge (in volts vs. SSCE) can be written as:

$$E_{CB} = -0.5 - 0.06(\text{pH}) \quad (1)$$

These values are roughly 0.1 V more negative than literature values for unmodified TiO_2 ,⁶ an effect presumably related to the negative charge introduced on the molecular side of the interface by dye phosphonate groups.

Pump/probe measurements under accumulation conditions (Figure 1, top curve) are characterized by a complete loss of the transient absorbance signal. (Luminescence is also absent (or undetectably fast).) It would appear that injection is either prevented under these conditions or is followed by back electron transfer of such rapidity that no bleaching signal can be detected.²³ In any case, the potential dependent experiments permit a separation between those reactions that clearly involve sub-bandgap states and those that do not.

With these results in hand, we sought to examine the driving force dependence (pH dependence) of the fast component of the back ET reaction.²⁴ Figure 3 illustrates the remarkable result that the first-order rate constant, $k_{ET}(=1/\tau_{\text{fast}})$, is invariant over a 19 pH unit range.²⁰ From eq. 1 this corresponds to a greater than 1.1 eV change in the apparent free energy of the semiconductor-bound electron and should have resulted in an enormous variation in k_{ET} (i.e. several orders of magnitude variation based on conventional interfacial electron transfer theories). We suggest two possibilities. First, back ET might be occurring from "special" surface states that are induced by dye binding and that are somehow decoupled from the energetic effects described by eq. 1. The difficulties

with this explanation are that: a) the most obvious surface states can be reversibly eliminated electrochemically (Figure 2) without tremendously altering the "fast" decay kinetics, and b) the chemical basis for elimination of the pH effect upon the putative surface state energetics remains unelucidated. A second explanation focusses attention back upon the origin of the phenomenon described by eq. 1. Recent electrochemical quartz crystal microbalance studies from our laboratory have shown unequivocally that electron accumulation layer formation is accompanied quantitatively by intercalation of charge compensating cations.⁹ If the cation is H^+ then E_{CB} (effectively the onset potential for accumulation layer formation) unavoidably acquires a Nernstian pH dependence²⁵ and interfacial ET becomes a proton-coupled process. The detailed kinetics, however, could entail stepwise electron and proton transfer. If rate determining ET preceded the proposed H^+ transfer, then the kinetically relevant driving force would differ from the overall reaction driving force and could conceivably lack a pH dependence.

Regardless of the ultimate explanation, the pH independence shown in Figure 3 raises important questions concerning fundamental interfacial reaction kinetics as well as design criteria for photoelectrochemical cell optimization. We hope to report shortly on additional experiments directed toward both questions.

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16. Because of the increased optical density available, the transient spectrum was obtained with a colloidal dispersion of the dye-coated semiconductor, rather than a thin film. The decay kinetics for colloid versus film samples were similar.
17. See, for example: Ohno, T.; Nozaki, K.; Ikeda, N.; Haga, M. *Adv. Chem. Ser.* **1991**, 228, 215.
18. The injected electron also is expected to absorb in the red portion of the spectrum. The comparatively small extinction coefficient for this species (ca. $600 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 780 nm (trapped electron))²¹ versus the coordinated radical anion ($\sim 2,400 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), however, renders the former undetectable under the conditions of our experiment.
19. As expected, at lower pH the long component is lost at less positive potentials (e.g., -0.7 V at pH = 2.4).

20. The admittedly complex transient signals were idealized via fits to an exponential decay (short component) plus a constant (long component; essentially invariant over first 400 ns). The open circuit lifetime of the short component was unchanged (20 ± 2 ns) over the available pH range, but decreased by ca. 50% when the dark assembly was potentiostatted near E_{CB} . Fits to a more complex function (two exponentials plus a constant) also yielded a pH invariant short component.
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22. See also: Redmond, G.; Fitzmaurice, D. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1993**, *176*, 493.
23. The absence of a transient bleaching signal implies the existence of a very rapid excited state decay process, in addition to (or as an alternative to) elimination of injection. Although we can only speculate at present, a candidate reaction would be interfacial energy transfer. Interestingly, the analogous carboxylated dye reportedly displays a long lived luminescence (~ 100 ns) when bound to TiO_2 under accumulation conditions (i.e. rapid quenching is absent; see: O'Regan, B.; Moser, J.; Anderson, M.; Grätzel, M. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1990**, *94*, 8720).
24. Preliminary studies with the the prototypical dye, $Ru(4,4'\text{-carboxylate-2,2'\text{-bipyridine}})_3^{4+}$, were suggestive of behavior similar to that for the phosphonated dye, but were complicated by desorption at extreme pH's.

25. For alternative explanations of pH/E_{CB} correlations for TiO_2 see: Finklea, H., "Semiconductor Electrodes", Elsevier, New York, 1988, ch. 2.

Figure Captions

1. Transient absorbance decay data (464 nm probe wavelength) for RuL_3 on TiO_2 (film on conductive glass) as a function of applied potential. For clarity, curves are offset along the absorbance axis.
2. Transient absorbance spectra ($t = 0$) for free RuL_3 ($4 \times 10^{-5} M$) (filled circles; corrected for residual red luminescence) and RuL_3 adsorbed on colloidal TiO_2 (open circles), both in aqueous solutions.
3. Dependence of back electron transfer rate constant (k_b) on solution pH or H_0 . Rate measurements were made at open circuit.²⁰ Dashed line is a hypothetical illustration (with arbitrary intercept) of anticipated inverted region behavior assuming a factor of 10 change in rate for a 0.2 eV change in conduction band edge energy.

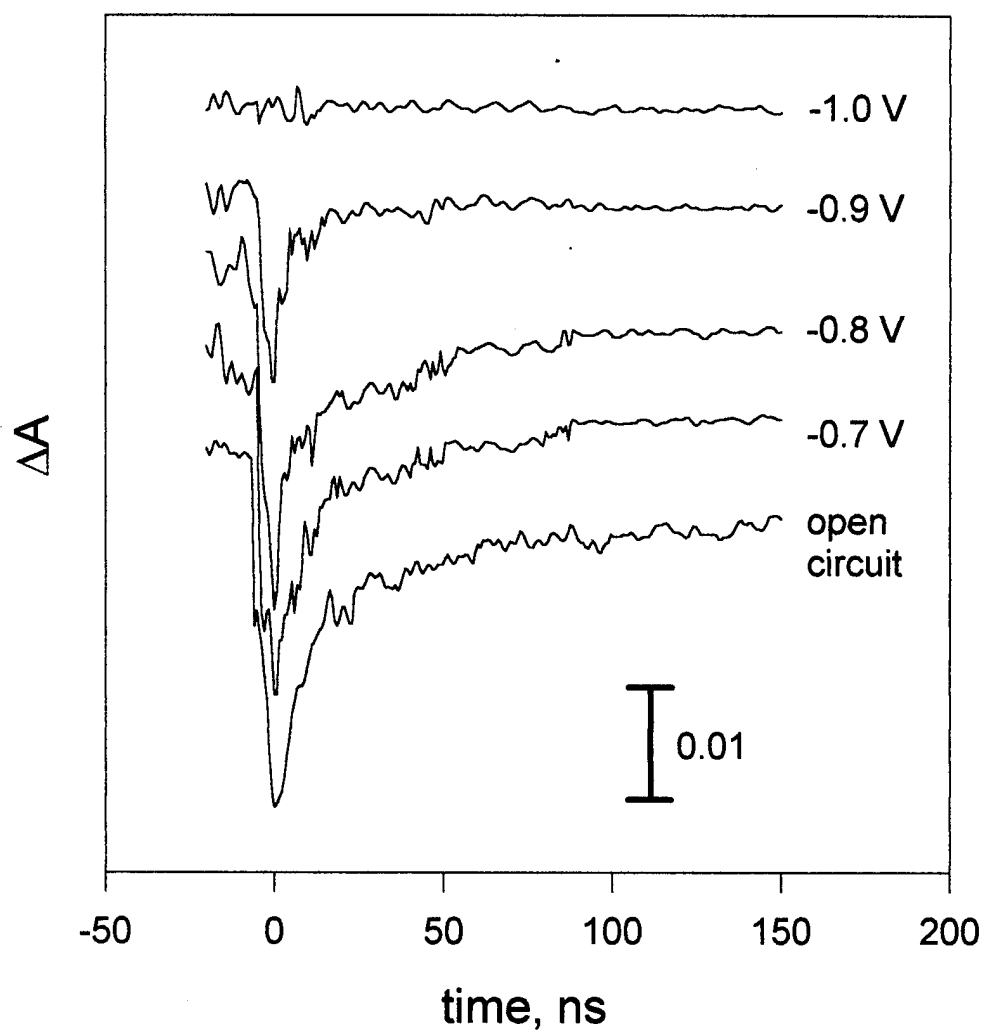
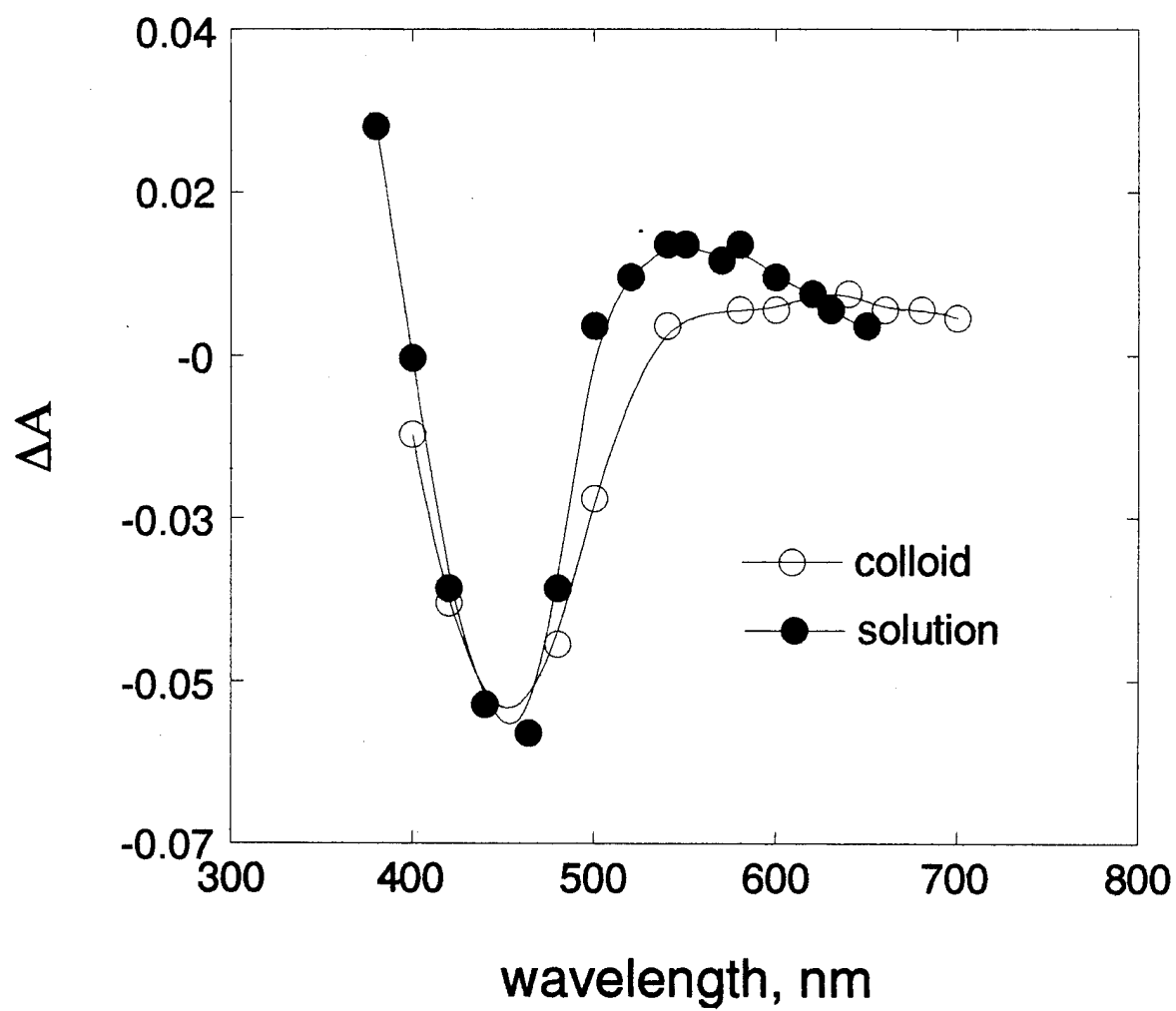


Fig. 1



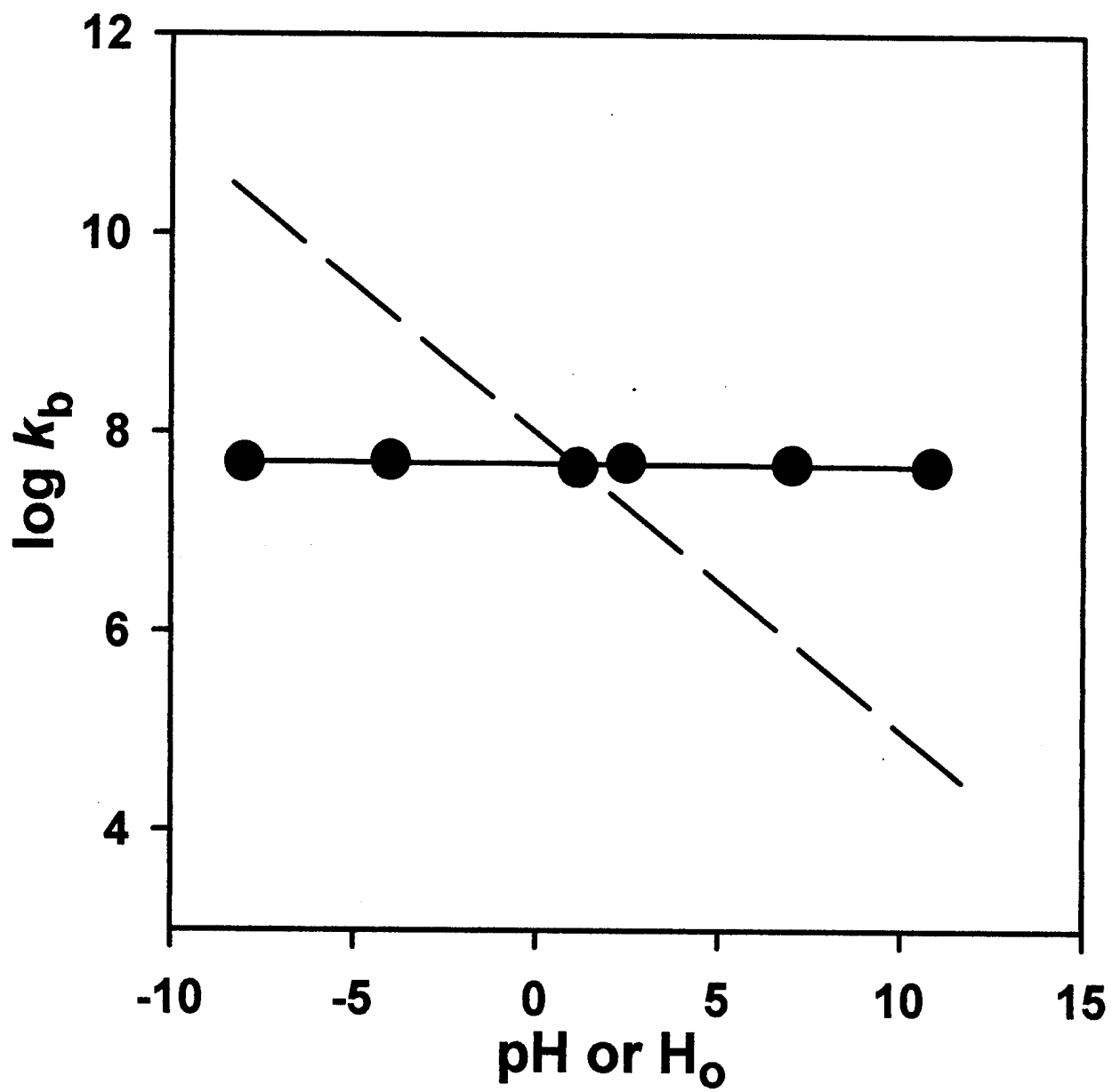


Fig-3